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### MONOMANIA.

THIS word has of late become a jest in the mouth of the public. But the public is unfortunately far from being well-informed on some things, and may perhaps laugh when it ought to be grave. We purposely abstained from alluding to the subject when it was, some time since, agitated under a considerable display of public excitement, being assured that, while any such excitement existed, it would be impossible to obtain a candid hearing for the truth. Now that calmness has been restored, we proceed to make a humble effort to explain the views at which men of science long devoted to the inquiry have arrived with regard to this species of insanity.

It has, then, been for several years concluded by the very highest authorities in the medical treatment of insanity, that—besides that species of it which directly affects the intellect, producing imbecility, fatuity, deranged perceptions and judgment, and the extremest form of which is idiocy—there is an insanity of the moral feelings, in which the intellect is left altogether, or almost altogether unaffected. Formerly, this class of cases passed under the general name of Melancholia, and were very imperfectly understood; but they are now described comprehensively as Moral Insanity, and have a distinctly ascertained place in the classifications of this kind of disease. Ten years before the world was startled by the result of the trial of McNaughton, Dr Pritchard thus described Moral Insanity in the *Cyclopædia of Medicine*:—"A morbid perversion of the feelings, affections, habits, without any hallucination or erroneous conviction impressed upon the understanding; it sometimes co-exists with an apparently unimpaired state of the intellectual faculties." Before that time, Esquirol, one of the highest authorities on the subject, had expressed his opinion, founded on a vast amount of observation in which there were no exceptions, that this moral insanity was, in reality, the most constant mark of mental derangement, there being many madmen with no hallucination, but none in whom the passions and moral affections are not disordered, perverted, or destroyed. Pinel, a not less venerated authority, says, "Hospitals for the insane are never without some example of mania, marked by acts of extravagance, or even of fury, with a kind of judgment preserved in all its integrity, if we may judge of it by conversation. The insane person gives the most just and precise answers to the questions of the curious; no incoherence of ideas is discernible; he reads and writes letters as if his understanding were perfectly sound; yet, by a singular contrast, he tears his clothes and bedding to pieces, and always finds some plausible pretext to justify his fury."

Moral insanity is of several kinds, according to the feelings or moral faculties affected. Some of these feelings are, however, much more frequently the seat of disease than others. As far as observation goes, it is sometimes a hereditary affection, though perhaps elicited by nearer causes; sometimes certain constitutional changes are attended by it; sometimes it arises from disordered states of the viscera: most generally, perhaps, it is the result of the long-continued irritation of a set of painful ideas nursed in solitude.

The feeling of self-esteem is one of those most frequently found affected. The individual conceives himself to be some personage of distinction, dead or living. He is Bonaparte, or the reigning sovereign, or the Archbishop of Canterbury. Many have even thought themselves to be the Deity, and acted as if they had the whole world at their command. It must

be owned, it is not easy to conceive a person under such delusions being able to converse rationally upon general topics; but that such is the case, has been clearly proved. There is an authentic anecdote told of one being examined with a view to test his insanity, which was greatly doubted. One of the legal men employed to establish sanity put a number of miscellaneous questions, to all of which pertinent answers were given; the jury was about to decide for sanity, when another counsel, having received a hint from a bystander, asked him if he was Jesus Christ. "Of course I am," was the reply, at once settling the matter the other way.

Disease in the acquisitive faculty is also frequent. It may be a good subject for a jest, that theft in a poor person is theft, but in a rich person monomania.\* But there cannot be the least doubt that many persons in easy circumstances, and otherwise rational and moral, have been addicted to taking the property of others, simply and expressly through the influence of disease. Dr Pritchard knew a patient in an asylum who would only eat that which he had stolen, so that it was necessary to place his food in such a way that he might furtively possess himself of it. This we adduce to show the feeling in its worst state of disease. Mrs May Drummond, a lady of fortune in the middle of the last century, was a person of the highest moral nature, insomuch that she devoted herself to a mission in order to raise money for the building of an infirmary which her brother, the chief magistrate of Edinburgh, had projected in that city. Yet this amiable being could not refrain from putting the silver spoons of her friends into her pockets, when present at any of their entertainments. It was a propensity which she could not resist. Her case is the type of many others, which are occasionally heard of in society. Sometimes the unfortunate person is so sensible of the habit, as to have a domestic instructed to search for and return every appropriated article. Now, we can readily allow, that to admit this explanation in certain cases, might introduce difficulty in the whole treatment of larceny, and unless strong precautions were taken, prove a negative temptation to persons who had no such excuse. But yet it is only justice to make a distinction between deliberate sordid theft and a habit in which none of the usual motives of theft are present, and where the whole is the effect of a visitation of disease by the providence of the Almighty. If this distinction is not to be made, how can that with regard to the age of an offender be admitted? It is a distinction, of course, which ought to be made in favour of the poor as well as the rich, when the evidence of disease can be established.

We have not room, in a paper necessarily so brief as this, to run over the whole of the moral feelings, but must confine ourselves to one other conspicuous class of cases, namely, those in which an uncontrollable resentment for fancied injuries, or an overpowering tendency to acts of mischief and violence, is manifested generally without the least of even fancied provocation.

Perhaps there is no phenomenon in insanity more calculated to excite our astonishment than the rise, in a mind otherwise sane and well-disposed, of a quiet deliberate propensity to commit mischievous and violent acts. It is difficult at first to reconcile ourselves to the idea that such a conjuncture can take place in human nature; but the evidence that it really does so, is too strong to be resisted. Only two years ago, a boy of fourteen years of age, the son of a tailor at Alluys, in the department of the Eure et

Loire, was convicted of six acts of arson, committed in open day with Lucifer matches, he having no ill-will to any of the parties whose property he thus destroyed—he was solely animated by an insane disposition to burning, which, it was proved, he had indulged on a former occasion, by setting fire to the clothes of some female labourers while they were sleeping in the fields. Whenever this boy had accomplished any of these acts, he was always distressed by their consequences, and was the first to call for assistance, in order to get the fire extinguished. Dr Wake, of the York asylum, describes a patient there, a youth of good temper, cheerful, and active, having no defect of intellect; whose only insanity, indeed, lay in this, that he was prone to commit every species of mischief in his power; under which spirit he, on one occasion, made his escape, and was found on his way to Bishopthorpe palace, with the design of burning it. This physician states, that he has known many such cases in the course of his practice. A considerable number have been detailed by a French medical writer, M. Maro—for instance: "In a respectable house in Germany, the mother of a family returning home one day, met a servant, against whom she had no cause of complaint, in the greatest agitation; she begged to speak with her mistress alone, threw herself upon her knees, and intreated that she might be sent out of the house. Her mistress, astonished, inquired the reason, and learned, that when this unhappy servant undressed the little child which she nursed, she was struck with the whiteness of its skin, and experienced the most irresistible desire to tear it in pieces. She felt afraid that she could not resist the desire, and preferred to leave the house." This incident, which, we believe, occurred in the house of the Baron de Humboldt, gives a striking idea of the struggle which such isolated tendencies may occasion in minds in which the moral feelings, as well as intellect, are generally sound. We hear also of a young lady who, without motive, felt a violent inclination to commit homicide, which she could only control by submitting to a strait waistcoat when it came upon her—of a distinguished chemist, of nature mild and sociable, who caused himself to be committed to one of the asylums of the Fauxbourg St Antoine, and put under the strongest personal restraint, that he might frustrate an otherwise uncontrollable desire of killing, but who ultimately did commit homicide, and perished in a fit of maniacal fury—and, what is most surprising of all, of a woman who consulted the celebrated Georget, and who appeared to him perfectly rational, but whose moral nature was so far disordered, that she only could avoid murdering her own children by flying from her house, all the time abhorring herself for the inclination. The case of Henriette Cornier, which occurred in 1825, was a very striking one. She was a domestic servant in Paris, twenty-seven years of age, when she was visited with a permanent melancholy, in the course of which she made an attempt to drown herself, and which caused her to lose the situation in which she had previously been. Having procured another place, she was occasionally sent for small articles to a neighbouring shop kept by a woman named Belon, whose child, a beautiful girl of nineteen months old, Cornier had often caressed. One day, she persuaded Belon to allow her to take the infant out for a walk—led it to her mistress's house—and there cut off its head. When the mother came soon after to the foot of the stair, and called out for her child, she calmly answered, "Elle est morte, votre enfant"—Your child is dead, and then threw the head out of the window. She was found by the officers of justice sitting on a chair, near the body of the child, gazing at it, with the

\* See "Nicholas Nickleby."



knife by her, and her hands and clothes covered with blood. She made no attempt for a moment to deny the act; confessed all the circumstances, even her premeditated design, and the perfidy of her caresses. It was found impossible to excite in her the slightest emotion of remorse or grief; to all that was said she replied with indifference, "J'ai voulu la tuer!"—*I intended to kill the child.* On her trial, the medical authorities, amongst whom was Esquirol, leant to the conclusion, that she had been under moral insanity before the commission of the deed; an idea which the advocate-general treated as a mere figment invented by medical men to paralyse the hands of justice: the journalists and the public also ridiculed it, being totally unprepared for any such doctrine, and ignorant of the facts on which it rested. The jury nevertheless brought in a modified verdict, namely, that Cornier had committed homicide without premeditation. She was condemned to perpetual imprisonment with forced labour, and to be branded, which sentence she heard without the slightest emotion.

The cases in which the leading feature is an uncontrollable resentment for ideal injuries, also form a large class. The passion first concerned seems to be of the nature of distrust and suspicion. The patient has a notion that certain persons and parties are his enemies, or engaged in slandering or undervaluing him, or bent on secretly thwarting all he does. The irritation thus experienced rouses the destructive propensity, and acts of violence against innocent persons are the consequence. At the same time, the intellect is quite unaffected, and the unhappy maniac will talk clearly and rationally upon everything but his fancied wrongs and his furious desire to revenge them. Dr Pritchard presents a case in which the progress of the malady in its first stages is remarkably well seen. "Mr E. W.—, a gentleman about thirty years of age, has laboured for several years under moral insanity. He has long been dejected in spirits and morose in temper, dissatisfied with himself, and suspicious of all that surrounded him. He was capricious and unsteady in his pursuits, frequently engaging in some new study in the most sanguine manner, and soon abandoning it in despair of making any progress, though possessed of good talents and considerable acquirements of knowledge. He passed the requisite time at one of the universities, but could not be prevailed on to go in for his degree, either through timidity and want of resolution, or, as it was conjectured by his friends, from a morbid apprehension that the examiners would not deal fairly with him, and award him the station to which he aspired and believed himself entitled. He frequently changed his residence, and soon began to fancy himself the object of dislike to every person in the house of which he became an inmate. His peculiarities appearing to increase, he was visited by two physicians, who were desired to investigate the nature of his case. On being questioned narrowly as to the ground of the persuasion expressed by him, that he was disliked by the family in which he then resided, he replied that he heard whispers uttered in distant apartments of the house, indicative of malevolence and abhorrence. An observation was made to him, that it was impossible for sounds so uttered to be heard by him. He then asked if the sense of hearing could not, by some physical change in the organ, be occasionally so increased in intensity, as to become capable of affording distinct perception at an unusual distance, as the eyes of mariners are well-known to be accommodated, by long effort, to very distant vision. This was the only instance of what might be termed hallucination discovered in the case after a minute scrutiny." It is evident that E. W. only required to suffer long enough and severely enough from his distressed feelings, in order to become a dangerous person. It is remarkable how nearly similar are the symptoms in cases of delirium tremens (where excessive indulgence in alcohol is the cause), also in certain cases where the infliction of a sudden and severe mortification has been suffered. In such cases as that of E. W., it would generally be found that there was an unfortunate want of balance in the moral faculties, and an exposure to inharmonious circumstances. A character in which there is little self-confidence, much love of approbation, along with much timidity, and little of the counteracting principle of hope, may be considered as predisposed to such insanity, and as greatly in danger of that result, if placed in circumstances where the weak feelings are much pressed upon. A deformed person, for example, with such a mental organisation, or with the variation of a large endowment of self-esteem, and who feels himself perpetually liable to be regarded with marks of loathing or aversion by his fellow-creatures, is greatly exposed to this calamity; and, in point of fact, acts of insane fury are often committed by such persons, sometimes at the distance of a considerable time from the light word or scornful look which gave the offence. Scott, with his profound knowledge of human nature, was well aware of this inclination of some minds, under a strong self-esteem, to take a long-postponed revenge for trifling mortifications. He depicts it strikingly in the confession of Elspeth, that one of her motives for entering into the deadly conspiracy against Miss Neville, was the "geeking and scorning" which that young lady had indulged in at her nuptial speech and dress, during their journey from England.

The monomania of violence may thus, it appears, either arise from some disorder in the destructive faculty itself, or from irritations of other faculties by which this is roused into insane activity. The causes which lead to it are often traceable to actual distempers in the body; for instance, "a peasant, born at Krumbach, in Swabia, and of parents who were not in very robust health, twenty-seven years old, and unmarried, was subject, from nine years of age, to fits of epilepsy. Two years ago, his disease changed its character, without any apparent cause; instead of a fit of epilepsy, this man found himself, from that time, attacked with an irresistible desire to commit murder. He felt the approach of this attack, sometimes many hours, sometimes a whole day, before it seized him. From the moment in which he felt this presentiment, he desired with earnestness that he might be tied down, that he might be loaded with chains, to prevent his committing a horrid crime. When the fit takes me," he said, "I am impelled to kill or strangle even an infant." His father and mother, to whom he was tenderly attached, would be the first victims of this murderous propensity. "My mother," he cries out with a fearful voice, "save yourself, or I shall be obliged to murder you!"\* Although, in other cases, the inclination to violence is the result of causes in which trains of thought on the part of the maniac bear at least a conspicuous part, the effect is not less beyond the control of his judgment or intellect, as well as of all the better moral feelings. He is, to all intents and purposes, simply the victim of a disease.

Yet, in the present state of our laws, and of public knowledge and feeling, these calamitous maladies are liable to subject their victims every day to the penalties which are inflicted for deliberate crimes. When the distinction is seen in its true light, could anything be more opposed to humanity, or even to justice? The tone of society on this subject appears to a mind which has been enlightened on it as truly revolting. "When a madman tries to kill himself," said Dr Gregory to his pupils, "confine him; if he tries to kill any other body, hang him!" This sentiment is responded to by the great bulk of the community. Ignorant of the nature of insanity, fearful to afford encouragement to an artful pretext, full of cowardly terrors for itself, and half believing that even insanity can be frightened into harmlessness, they would have vengeance in every case: one journalist, on a late occasion, even recommended the bystanders to inflict instant punishment with their own hands. It is hardly possible to speak coolly of such barbarism—for barbarism it assuredly is—one of the remnants of the ruthless savage, left over in the midst of a seeming civilisation. Nor is judicial wisdom much more just. The old dotard idea, that there is no insanity but that blind fatuity which knows not what it is doing, maintains its place on the bench, an age after science has placed the question in a comparatively correct light. Even in the highest chamber of the legislature, this notion—the offspring and exponent of a state of absolute ignorance—is openly maintained, and we scarcely escape from new enactments to make the punishment of dangerous maniacs more secure. Let us hope that, in the more civilised communities at least, this subject will in a few years be regarded in another light, that human life will then be so much respected as to insure a careful inquiry to distinguish acts of insanity from those of ordinary pravity, and that it will then be considered sufficient for the public protection that dangerous lunatics are separated from society, not condemned to a punishment the full weight of which they scarcely can know.

#### PHILOSOPHICAL ADVENTURES ON THE SWISS GLACIERS.

OUR readers have already been made aware of an interesting discussion which has taken place with respect to the movements of glaciers, as tending to throw light on the cause of the distribution, over various parts of the earth's surface, of blocks of stone, many of which, it is clearly perceived, must have travelled from considerable distances, as it is only at considerable distances that the rocks exist to which, from their peculiar character, they have evidently belonged. Geologists were long satisfied to consider the carrying of these blocks as the work of water-currents which had once swept over the surface, and of which the blue-clay diluvium or till is an existing memorial. But of late years, Professor Agassiz of Neuchâtel, so eminent for his researches in fossil fishes (although still a young man), has started a new theory, namely, that these blocks have been carried from their original to their present situations by glaciers, the surface of our temperate regions having been at one time covered by such an icy sheet, in consequence of the prevalence of an arctic temperature to a point far to the south of its present limits; other proofs of which exist in the shells of arctic species which are found in the recent clays of our own country, while the present British species are found in similar situations in Sicily and other countries about fifteen degrees to the south. M. Agassiz sees in the Swiss Alps at this day natural operations of exactly the same kind, the glaciers being always in a kind of progress from the centre of greatest elevation towards the

low grounds, bearing upon and within their bosoms fragments of rock torn from above, and which they lay down in ranges at the places where they terminate: exactly such ranges he sees, for example, at the mouths of several glens in Inverness-shire, where no glaciers now exist. In like manner, he accounts for the great ranges of blocks found in Siberia, Russia, Scandinavia, and Britain, by supposing them to have been carried from the north, and laid down at the termination of the circle of polar ice—a termination much to the south of its present one. But how, it may be asked, can a glacier be supposed to have moved along such large extents of ground? how can it have descended where there was no slope? for is not the descent of a glacier owing to its weight? This is a difficulty which very naturally occurs; but, in reality, it is only one arising from a false assumption as to what causes the movement of a glacier. For some years, M. Agassiz and other scientific persons have been making observations on the actual structure and movements of glaciers, which show that, though they generally rest on an inclination, they move from an entirely different cause; namely, an expansion of their body, which takes place in summer, produced by the daily infiltration and nightly congelation of water, so that there is no real difficulty in supposing a constant movement of the polar mass of ice towards its skirts. It will readily be supposed that researches of this kind, requiring a residence of weeks at a time on the surface of an ice-clad Alpine wilderness, and often involving hazardous and painful journeys, not to speak of extraordinary operations on the body of the ice itself, must have often presented our little knot of hardy philosophers in an adventurous and even romantic point of view. Such was really the case in no small degree, as appears from the narratives which they have from time to time given to the scientific journals.

In the beginning of March 1841, M. Agassiz and M. Desor resolved to visit the glaciers of the Bernese Oberland, in order, if possible, to settle the question, whether the water which flows from glaciers arises from their melting, or from springs in the ground which they cover! The season was as yet winter, but the weather was fine; and, in their eagerness to determine a point so important to the theory, they defied all danger. Selecting the glaciers of the Aar and of Rosenlaui as the field of their observations, they proceeded towards the Hospice of the Grimsel, by ascending the valley of Hasli, which was still entirely covered with snow. To pursue a narrative of

M. Desor.\* "The distance from the Handeck to the Grimsel is only two leagues, but as the snow became always more abundant as we advanced, we could not hope for an easy road. The most difficult places were the woods of young pine trees. The bed of snow which covered them was unequally distributed; and when we accidentally stepped near one of the trees, we were immersed up to the waist; an occurrence which, on each occasion, caused very fatiguing shocks. At Raetherschboden, the last enlargement of the valley, a small thread of water occupied the bed of the Aar; but the water was so pure, that, from the first, we supposed that it must come from some spring, and not from the glacier. It did not carry along with it any of those plates of mica, whose presence gives to the water of glaciers that sparkling appearance, and that milky tint, which characterise it.

The last league seemed to us the longest. The heat and the difficulties of the road had so exhausted us, that we were obliged to repose several times, in order to recover our breath. At length we heard the barking of the dogs of the Hospice. It was, as it were, a friendly voice calling us to be of good cheer. We felt our vigour re-animated by this encouraging sound; and in a few moments afterwards, we saw making their appearance, on the mountain which rises above the Grimsel, the keeper of the Hospice, accompanied by his fine Newfoundland dog, Barry.

A small traffic of exchange is carried on between the Valais and the Hasli, which is not entirely discontinued during the winter, and of which the Grimsel is the warehouse at that season. The Haslians bring their cheese, the Valaisans their wine, their brandy, and various kinds of provisions—among others, rice, which comes from Italy by the Simplon or the Gries. The two parties stop at the Hospice, sleep there, and are at home next day, carrying with them cheese, if they descend to the Valais, and wine and brandy, if they return to the valley of Hasli. It is for the purpose of facilitating this communication, that the keeper of the Hospice is bound to have a man and two dogs at the Grimsel during the whole winter, and likewise to place piquets on the whole mountain of the Grimsel between the Hospice and the Valais, to point out the path to travellers.

It is unnecessary to remark, that, to allow of this commerce being carried on in winter, the weather must not be too severe, for it would be madness to attempt such a journey in the midst of snow or wind. Thus the Grimsel, at such a time, is altogether solitary; and the keeper told us, that during the winter of 1839-40, he had passed thirty-five days without seeing a human figure. "This long isolation," he added, "seemed to me so painful, that, on perceiving the first

\* The extracts given in the present article are from a Memoir on the Glacial Theory, by M. Agassiz, in a late number of the "Edinburgh New Philosophical Journal."



traveller who passed the Grimsel, I threw myself on his neck, embraced him, and offered him a bottle of wine. The dogs here are at least as important as the men for watching, on account of the extreme delicacy of their senses, and especially of that of smell. All the guides assert, that in serene weather, and especially in winter, they detect the presence of a man at the distance of a league; and Jaun assured us, that an hour before our arrival, he had already remarked, from the iniquitude of Barry, that some one was approaching the Hospice.

Those who have visited the Grimsel in summer, will doubtless remember, that, in order to enter the vestibule, it is necessary to ascend a stair about seven feet high. Now, to give an idea of the quantity of snow which was accumulated round the house, it is sufficient for me to state, that, in place of ascending to the vestibule, we descended thereby a stair which Jaun had cut in the snow.

We went to bed at an early hour, immediately after supper, having decided to start for the Abschwang the following morning at four o'clock. Our guides made us still hope that perhaps the cold of the night might be sufficiently great to cause the snow to bear us, which would considerably facilitate our walk. At three o'clock we were up, and while Jacob prepared the coffee, we examined our thermometers, and saw, to our great disappointment, that the cold was far from being so intense as we imagined. Notwithstanding this temperature, the snow bore us while we descended the declivity which leads from the Hospice to the bed of the Aar. We now looked forward to the prospect of proceeding with light steps over the hardened crust, and of scaling the edge of the glacier with equal facility; but we had scarcely advanced a few paces in the valley, when we arrived at a place where the crust gave way under our feet. With great difficulty and pain, they reach the edge of the glacier at 7 o'clock. "I was dreadfully fatigued (continues M. Desor), and I had had so many and such repeated falls, that my knees were quite galled. I declared to Agassiz that I should proceed no further. If the plain had seemed so difficult, what would it not be when we should arrive upon the glacier! But notwithstanding my remonstrances, Agassiz was determined to persist; and he represented to me that the crust could not fail to be softened when the sun had acted for some hours on its surface, and that our journey would then be much less laborious. These and other reasons induced me to attempt the ascent of the terminal edge of the glacier, which we found much less difficult than we had figured to ourselves. The snow had rendered the slope much more gentle than it is in summer; for not only was there no trace of the moraine to be discovered, but even the inequalities, and the very considerable notches of the extremity of the glacier, had completely disappeared. We saw no vestige of the stream. Having arrived on the surface of the glacier, we found here and there blocks, whose tops emerged from beneath the snow; but their lower sides were alone visible, for the surfaces directed to the upper part of the glacier were invariably concealed by a covering of snow—a proof that, in winter, as in summer, the prevailing winds are from the west, parallel to the axis of the glacier. Having found the surface of the glacier more practicable than the plain, we decided on continuing our march, with the intention of retracing our steps afterwards. Our guides did not give us much encouragement, for they knew no better than we did the state of the glacier in winter. Our march was still very slow and arduous, as may be well supposed; but we did meet with portions where the snow was bearing. We then experienced extraordinary relief, and, in spite of fatigue, we ran like children upon the hardened surface, until the snow anew gave way under our feet, and again calmed our ardour.

We were scarcely able to recognise our glacier of the Aar, so varied and animated in summer, under the uniform bed of snow. The great medial moraine itself was more or less effaced, and only formed a longitudinal ridge, whose flanks were much less inclined than in summer. We first of all reached the northern flank, and when we had passed over about a third of the glacier, we crossed to the southern flank, at the point where the moraine is considerably swollen. We there saw, to our great satisfaction, that our route improved more and more. The snow was much more compact, so that even when its external crust yielded, we did not sink very far. There was no longer any doubt of our arriving at the Abschwang. But another inconvenience came in the place of the difficulty of walking, and that was the intensity of the light. In proportion as the sun attained a greater elevation, its rays were reflected with such power by the millions of crystals of this vast snowy region, that the blue glasses with which we were provided became insufficient; and in order to remedy this, and to preserve the skin of our faces, we were obliged to envelope our heads in a double veil, under which we breathed as if we had been in the middle of summer. It was not without some astonishment that we here met with a small butterfly, which fluttered around us. It seemed to be perfectly at its ease, and was, according to M. Agassiz, the species named *Vanessa Urtica* (*La Petite Tortue*).

It was eleven o'clock when we arrived at the height of our old dwelling, and we were very much astonished at not being able to discover the *Hôtel des Neuchâtelois* (a mere hut which Agassiz had formerly reared and inhabited). Was it possible to conceive that the im-

mense block, which was seen from so great a distance in summer, and whose summit had so often re-animated the courage of our visitors, had been entirely interred in the snow! At last, after having sought for it on all sides of the moraine, we descried at some distance a swelling in the snowy ridge, and this proved to be our hotel. It was entirely covered by snow. On one side only we saw one of its walls uncovered for a space of some feet; but, in order to penetrate into the interior, it would have been necessary to clear away an enormous bed of snow, which would have occupied a great deal of time, and we therefore preferred reposing on the snow. Agassiz was in very high spirits; rejoiced to find himself, in such magnificent weather, in the midst of that sea of ice which he had made the scene of his observations. In truth, the spectacle which we had before us was of an unique character. It appeared to us that we had never seen the air so transparent. The outlines of the mountains were delineated on the blue background of the sky with a precision never witnessed in summer. All the peaks which bound the glacier were clothed with snow from their base to their summit; and the Finsteraarhorn alone was black as in summer, for its walls are too precipitous on the side next the glacier, to allow of the snow adhering to them. As to the glacier itself, it really did not exist for us at that time; for we had nothing else before us but an immense extent of very uniform snow, which wanted the magic charm given by moraines, as well as the crevices with their brilliant tints, the icy cascades, and the thousand rills of water with their harmonious murmur, all of which constitute the delights of the scene in summer. We then ascended to the Abschwang, and saw that the snow had completely filled up the space between the rock and the *séne*. We estimated the thickness of the bed of snow at that place at thirty feet. At noon, we returned to the *Hôtel des Neuchâtelois*; and as I felt myself indisposed, I decided on returning with a guide. Agassiz remained for the purpose of making some observations on temperature, and rejoined us at the Hospice of the Grimsel about four o'clock. When we were all seated round the table in the small low apartment, which serves as a shoemaker's workshop, we experienced a lively satisfaction in recalling the most trifling events of the day; and, proud of our success, we formed a thousand projects for the future. It was then, among other plans, that we conceived, for the first time, the idea of attempting the ascent of the Jungfrau. Jacob had prepared the supper, which, like that of the preceding evening, consisted of rice-soup, salt mutton, and chamois steaks. This last dish was not, I must allow, very juicy; but as it was of chamois, we were obliged to regard it as delicious.

We soon went to bed, in order that we might be able to start at a very early hour in the morning; but we had scarcely reposed an hour or two, when I experienced the most violent pain in the face. My head seemed on fire, and I felt my cheeks swelling, and my face cracking. In vain I sprinkled myself with cold water. I suffered the agony of a martyr. Agassiz awoke a few minutes afterwards with a deep sigh. I am in great pain, he said; my lips feel as if they were torn in pieces. What can be done to assuage this suffering! For a moment we thought of going out and immersing ourselves in the snow, but reflecting that such a remedy might produce serious consequences, we resolved to endure our misery till the morning. It was a terrible night for us. Towards the morning the pain gave us a little respite; we reposed a few hours, and when we rose, we could not restrain our fits of laughter on looking at each other. Our faces were coloured purple, and horribly disfigured; I could scarcely open my eyes, so great was the swelling of my eyelids; and Agassiz had his lower lip excessively swollen and pendant.

The observations made on the journey (most of which we omit) completely satisfied the two travellers that the water which flows from glaciers is spring-water, and that the glaciers do not move in winter.

In the ensuing autumn, M. Agassiz spent above a month (from 8th August to 10th September) on the glacier of the Aar, accompanied by several friends, who, like himself, were constantly during that time engaged in scientific observations and experiments. On this occasion, they carried on boring operations to a considerable extent, and M. Agassiz himself had the courage to descend by a rope and windlass through a profound pit in the ice, in order to settle one of the questions involved in his inquiry. "A board," he says, "on which I was to sit, was fixed at the end of the rope, and I was secured to that rope by a strap, which passed under my arms, so that my hands were left free. In order to protect me from the water, which we were not able to turn off completely, the guides covered my shoulders with the skin of a goat, and placed on my head a cap made of a marmot's skin. Thus accoutred, I descended, provided with a hammer and a staff. My friend Escher was to direct the descent, and for this purpose he lay down on his face, with his ear hanging over the side, in order the better to hear my directions. It was agreed that so long as I did not ask to come up, I should be allowed to descend as far as the distance at which M. Escher could distinctly hear my voice. I reached a depth of eighty feet without encountering any obstacle, observing attentively the lamellar structure of the glacier and the small stalactites of ice of which I have already spoken, and which were attached on all sides to the walls of the pit. These stalactites were from two to five or six inches

long, and only a few lines in diameter, and they were bent like hooks fixed in the walls. It was evident that they were produced by an exudation from the walls of the pit; for if they had resulted from the water falling from the surface of the glacier, they would not have been so uniform nor so equally distributed over the whole surface of the sides. Those which were really derived from the cascade of water from above were much larger, were more closely united to the wall of ice, and were, moreover, limited to one of the surfaces of the passage. The bands of blue ice became perceptibly broader as I descended; they were less sharply marked than above, and the remainder of the mass, of an inferior degree of whiteness, was less distinctly contrasted with the intermediate deeper-coloured lamina. At a depth of about eighty feet, I encountered a ridge of ice which divided the pit into two compartments, and I endeavoured to enter the widest; but I could not penetrate more than five or six feet, because the passage became divided into several narrow canals. I caused myself to be raised up, and managing so as to make the rope deviate from the vertical line, I got into the other compartment. I had observed in descending, that there was water at the bottom of the pit, but I supposed it to be at a very great depth; and as my attention was especially directed to the vertical bands, which I continued to trace, thanks to the light reflected by the brilliant walls of the ice, I was very much astonished when I suddenly felt that my feet were immersed in water. I immediately directed myself to be drawn up; but the order was misunderstood, and in place of ascending, I found that I was descending. I then uttered a cry of distress, which was heard, and I was raised up before being obliged to have recourse to swimming. It seemed to me as if I had never in my life encountered water so cold. Fragments of ice floated on its surface, which no doubt were broken portions of stalactites. The walls of the pit were rough to the touch, and this was doubtless caused by the capillary fissures.

I should have wished much to remain a longer time to examine the details of the structure of the ice, and to enjoy the unique spectacle presented by the blue of the sky, as seen from the bottom of the abyss; but the cold obliged me to ascend as soon as possible. When I reached the surface, my friends told me of their anxiety for my safety when they heard my cries, and that they had experienced the greatest possible difficulty in drawing me up the pit, although they were eight in number. I had, however, reflected but little on the danger of my position. Perhaps, if I had known it previously, I would not have exposed myself to it; for, if one of the large-pointed flakes of ice lining the walls of the cavity had been detached by the rubbing of the rope, and had struck me in its descent, my destruction would have been certain. I would, therefore, advise no one to repeat the experiment, unless it should be for some important scientific purpose.

We regret that we cannot here enter into the philosophical researches of this extraordinary party of philosophers; but we believe that most of our readers will feel some interest in the following general account which Agassiz gives of the mode of life pursued by him and his friends on the glaciers:—

"Notwithstanding its pompous name, the *Hôtel des Neuchâtelois* is, in reality, but a very small hut, about twelve feet long by six broad, and four high, where its height is greatest. I have already said that this cabin is situated on the moraine; it has pure ice for its foundation, on which the broad stones of the moraine have been placed so as to form a sort of flooring. A bed of herbs gathered on the sides of the glacier served as a mattress; and to protect ourselves from moisture, we took care to make use of a double covering of wax-cloth. The latter is a precaution which it is important to take, and which I cannot sufficiently recommend to those who wish to live on glaciers; for there, as elsewhere, humidity is much more to be dreaded than cold. As our hut was merely formed of a dry stone wall, we endeavoured to guard against violent winds by stopping up the interstices with bunches of grass. It nevertheless happened frequently, in spite of our precautions, that a hurricane (*Gusen*) blew fearfully through the wall. As, however, we were generally fatigued by our exertions during the day, we did not sleep the less soundly.

It was the rainy and snowy nights only which were really disagreeable; for as the large block which served as a roof was fissured throughout, notwithstanding its enormous thickness, the water penetrated by the fissures, and streamed along its lower surface. Whenever one of these little streamlets encountered an inequality, a cascade was formed, which awoke in an annoying manner those who happened to be under it. Sometimes one, and sometimes another, was then seen rising up, and seizing a candle, endeavouring with his finger to give another direction to the troublesome rill. But soon recovering its first direction, it would proceed to moisten the person to the right or left, and thus rouse him by dropping provokingly into his ear or mouth. The unfortunate individual would then get up in his turn, and try to correct the course of the water, or probably send it to sprinkle his companion near him. I remember one night when the rills of water and the cascades were so abundant, that all change of direction was useless; and seeing that it was impossible to shut an eye, we began to amuse ourselves at the expense of our cas-



esides, by communicating to them all sorts of directions. In place of sleeping, we pursued hydrographical studies.

In order to inure ourselves to the cold, several of the party adopted the habit of bathing the body every morning in lead water, in a large tub which the guides placed every evening before the door of the hut, and which in the morning was often covered with ice half an inch in thickness. At first this practice seemed severe, but we soon became accustomed to it, and did not wish to give it up; for after the first disagreeable sensation was surmounted, we were sure to feel warm, and could wear our ordinary dresses with impunity; whereas those who dreaded these icy baths, and did not make use of them, shivered around us enveloped in their cloaks.

Our chief guide, Jacob Leuthold, who was also at the same time our chief cook, arrived between four and five o'clock to prepare breakfast, which generally consisted of a cup of chocolate. When we had finished, the pot was replaced on the fire for the breakfast of our guides, which was cheese-soup. Our first occupation was to visit the thermometographs and the thermometers; and when the sheath of one or other of these instruments was frozen to the walls of the hole, it became necessary to employ hot water to detach it; an operation which took up a considerable time. Except on rainy days, the boring could not be commenced before eight o'clock, for it was necessary to wait till the rills of water again began to flow; the work was then carried on till mid-day. Those who were not occupied with the borers made an excursion to some neighbouring summit, or visited one of the numerous moraines which descend from the flanks of the valley; and as I had taken with me a landscape painter, M. Bourkhart of Neuchâtel, to delineate the most remarkable phenomena of this *mer de glace*, in a scientific and picturesque point of view, I often accompanied him to point out the places most worthy of attention.

But let us return to our hut. Mid-day approaches, the whole party are re-assembled round the kitchen fire, and each one brings with him an appetite with which, for sharpness, that experienced on the plains cannot be compared. Although, therefore, the fare was but little varied, all agreed that it was a real enjoyment to dine in the open air at the Hôtel des Neuchâtelais, round the large flat block of gneiss which served as our table. We had little else to eat but mutton and rice; but whether it is that the mutton of these high mountains is really better than elsewhere, or that the sharp air renders the palate less fastidious, it is certain that we never tired of it. Sometimes we had, for variety, some goat's meat, which we likewise found excellent. A cup of coffee and a cigar were the necessary adjuncts to our dinner, and it seemed to us that both the one and the other had a more exquisite perfume under the sky of the Shreckhorn and the Finsteraarhorn. This was the hour for lively conversation, animated discussions, and the proposal of daring projects. After dinner we all returned to our occupations, one in one direction, and another in the opposite; or perhaps we remained at the hotel to write out our notes and observations. The evening thus arrived, for the most part, more speedily than we could have wished. After the little rills of water on the surface of the glacier began to be dried up, which, in serene days, generally took place between four and five o'clock, the boring was stopped, the holes were emptied of water, and the thermometographs were introduced, operations which continued till nearly seven o'clock. We then assembled anew around the kitchen; but at that time, although not less hungry than at dinner, we remained a much shorter period at table, for it was much colder, the temperature being then generally about 32 degrees Fahrenheit. The supper being over, we hastened to enter the hut; the light dresses of the day were exchanged for good cloaks and furs; and when night arrived, we closed the curtain which served as a door, and lighted the candle. The guides returned to their habitation on the left bank of the glacier, and all slept quietly on a place of repose, which, under any other circumstances, would have been thought detestable.

In this manner we passed altogether about a month on the glacier of the Aar, without including the excursion to the Jungfrau, which took place on the 28th of August. During all this time we had a crowd of visitors, who were curious to see an establishment of so novel a kind. Others were attracted by a more elevated motive—the desire to participate in our labours, or to testify, by their visit, the interest which they took in the investigations we were prosecuting; and as the happiness which we experience at meeting with persons for whom we entertain a profound veneration, or with whom we are on terms of sincere friendship, was heightened by the beauty of the locality, I felt my heart beat with joy whenever I recognised a friend among the travellers who arrived along with the carrier of provisions about eleven o'clock in the morning. I am proud to be able to name among the number of those who visited me or lived with me at the Hôtel des Neuchâtelais, General Pfuel, governor of Neuchâtel, who, notwithstanding his age, performed on foot the arduous journey across the glacier, being unwilling to be outstripped even by the youngest; Lord Enniskillen, whose zeal does not give way before any fatigue, when the progress of science is in question; M.M. Adolphe and Alfred de Rougemont, whom

we are always sure to meet whenever any object of utility connected with Switzerland is concerned; my excellent friend Professor Studer of Bern; Mr and Mrs Trevelyan; Messrs Guyot, Robertson, Cole, Nicholson, Martins, Canson, &c. Lastly, I have already had occasion to mention among the number of those who took an active part in my labours, M. Escher de la Linth, as well as Messieurs Desor, Vogt, Forbes, and Heath. All shared my habitation at the Hôtel des Neuchâtelais; and I took care to have all their names cut on one of the surfaces of the large block which served us as a shelter."

## OCCASIONAL NOTES.

### EGOTISM OF LONDON.

LONDON is often called a world of a place, or a world in itself. This is true in a sense not very flattering to London. The size and vast social complexity of the metropolis cause the inhabitants to confine their views very much to their own place of residence. They give little thought to the country, or to any of the other great cities which it contains, and are not so much Britons or Englishmen, as they are Londoners. We see the effects of this habit of their minds, in the way in which they speak of many of their public institutions, even when it may be presumed that they are addressing the whole country. For instance, a literary Londoner, writing for all the world, would speak of the London custom-house as the custom-house—the docks as the docks—the city as the city—the west end as the west end. He would never once think of distinguishing these places from similar places in other cities of the empire—not even although the production of his pen was designed for publication in a provincial work, where the distinction would be necessary for the sense. In speaking of a street or square in London, albeit no notable one, he would give its name alone, as if not presuming that there was another of the same name in the world, or that any person could be so ignorant as not to know the whereabouts of the Russel Square, or the Great Titchfield Street present in his imagination. For some such reason it must be that *The Tower* is one special place on the left bank of the Thames, below London Bridge, notwithstanding that towers of all kinds exist in great numbers throughout the empire. The country is obliged to hear London talk of itself and all the things in and connected with it in this exclusive way—with what patience it may. But it may be questioned if the exclusiveness does not proceed more from simple limitation of view than from egotism. An individual living in the centre of a city so vast as London, actually with the eyes of his flesh sees less way about him than a man living in the country. In moral vision, too, he has not the power of taking in so wide a range. The rural man knows the country, and has to study something of London also. His look is from one of the outer circles inwards, and thus he sees a great part of the whole. But the Londoner disregards the outer circles, and, grubbing away in the centre, is scarcely aware of the existence of aught besides. Unless where these influences are remarkably well counteracted, there is a greater provinciality in the London mind—meaning by provinciality, narrowness of knowledge and habits of thinking—than in the rural or second-rate city mind. A vast portion of the literature produced in London bears proof of this proposition, being, however designed for the contrary, totally unreadable, and not even intelligible, anywhere but in London. These must be considered as amongst the disadvantages attending residence in a city where, perhaps, there are more varied enjoyments at the command of a tolerable income than are to be found elsewhere. It is part of the price paid for living in the wealthiest and most luxurious capital in the world.

### "LEAVE ALONE."

"Gentlemen," said Henry IV. to the merchants of France, "what can I do to serve you?" "Leave us alone," was the curt and significant reply. It is the principle, if not the origin, of the modern system of unrestricted commerce, which is now generally acquiesced in, if not practically enforced, by the enlightened of all parties. The French merchants sought not aid or protection, only non-interference and liberty to pursue their own interests their own way. In the production of commodities this may be a safe license, since the interests of producers is identified with that of the consumers, in supplying those articles which are most needed, and can be raised at the least cost of production. The same profitable impulse may suffice for the regulation of external trade. A merchant, with most gain to himself, exports the native products that are superabundant, in exchange for the foreign ones that are deficient—the wines or silks of France in return for the hardware or linens of England, and both nations are benefited. But a principle unquestionably sound in commerce may not be applicable to every description of human affairs.

The *laissez faire*, or leave-alone system, proceeds on the general maxim, that the interests of individuals coincide with the interests of the community; or, as Pope expresses it, that "self-love and social are the same." Acquiescing in the abstract truth of this, still, it may be too indiscriminately or unseasonably acted upon, and has been occasionally, we suspect, productive of legislative inertness that has been harmful. Conceding to the utmost that individuals are mostly

disposed to follow their own interests when they know them, still, in many cases they do not know them, or if they do, are too remiss or vicious to follow them in the right direction. It is certain that all great past efforts to enlighten and reform mankind have been at first opposed by the prejudices and mistaken apprehensions of the majority. This may be instanced not only in the attempts made to oppose the dissemination of new truths in morals and religion, but in physical science. Before, therefore, implicit reliance is given to the unaided and spontaneous preference by individuals of their own real interests, it is essential that they should be intelligent enough to understand them, and virtuous enough to pursue them.

Secondly, there are many emergencies in which the concurrence of individuals in the attainment of the same object, is an indispensable preliminary to amendment. For example, a man might like and feel an interest in having the foot-pathway and road in front of his house paved, lighted, and drained; but this would be impracticable or useless, unless his neighbour would simultaneously concur in the adoption of similar improvements; hence has arisen the utility and necessity of acts of parliament for the accomplishment of these and similar local purposes. There are many persons who would be glad to close their shops at earlier hours, to shorten the hours of labour generally, and give more frequent holidays to their workpeople, but for obvious reasons, they cannot introduce these meliorations till legislation has made it compulsory on all occupied in the same trade or manufacture. It is thought by some, that many errors have been committed in the introduction of railways; that much needless expense has been incurred by abandoning the construction of them to the "leave alone" or unrestricted competition of individuals; and that parliament ought to have assumed the initiative in the opening of the great lines throughout the kingdom, and, for the protection of the public, retained a corrective control over their management.

Those who are bent on leaving everything to individual discretion, seem to overlook that the chief advantages of civilisation have been the result of municipal interference and regulation. That there may be too much meddling, is certain, but there may also be too little. Institutions, laws, and social usages, are not spontaneous products, but the realised fruits of experience—safeguards and conveniences which lengthened observation had proved to be essential to the common benefit. For one man's good, they have substituted the good of the community. Individuals are only isolated atoms, each, according to its intelligence, prompt enough to give the preference to self, and it requires a ruling power, representing the aggregate, to compress, fashion, and direct them to the general purpose.

## THE BEAUTY.

### A STORY OF REAL LIFE.

"WAS there ever seen so beautiful a child?" exclaimed with unanimous and rare sincerity some of the attendants on the christening of little Helen Phillips; whilst others answered "never!" in face of all the ancient examples and "modern instances" on record. Her father, a poor but well-born Welsh curate, was a great admirer of Homer, and his baby owed to a secret classical association the name of Helen, which the simple gossips ascribed to respect for the memory of her great-grandmother.

As she grew into girlhood, her beauty did not, as is often the case, forsake her, but expanded and increased with her stature. Happily, also, her mind was of a character not to retard the progress of her loveliness, or to lessen its effect; a frown of discontent or displeasure seldom passed over her face. Though she was constantly subjected to the ill-judged and extravagant encomiums of a fond mother, extremely vain of her daughter's personal gifts, yet Helen was seldom guilty of the airs which arise from vanity and conceit. In truth, her natural disposition was most amiable, and (to use a nursery phrase) she "was one who would not spoil."

With approaching womanhood came those feelings and sentiments which, while they add to beauty its highest charm, surround it with its greatest perils and temptations. At such a period of existence, beauty's best safeguard, next to religious principle, is an early and virtuous attachment; and one between Helen and a curate cousin of her own, would, if allowed to take its natural course, have shielded her from much future misery. But her mother withheld the necessary consent until the clerical lover's circumstances should improve. A proper maternal prudence was not, however, the only reason which actuated Mrs Phillips. She knew from experience to what toil and obscurity the wife of a poor clergyman is condemned; and Helen's beauty demanded, she imagined, a higher destiny. The apparent obstacle to her approval of the match was soon removed, for William Burton obtained a colonial chaplaincy, and joyfully did he communicate his good fortune to Helen, who, he never doubted, would now become his bride, and cheerfully accompany him to the distant scene of his sacred labours. Neither was Helen loath to fulfil, with the betrothed of her youth, the Scripture injunction, to leave father and mother, and "home and friends." She wrote, at the dictate of affection, a joyful assent,



and set cheerfully about the necessary provision for sailing across half the globe. Her mother, however, intended otherwise, and made the circumstance of so wide a separation a pretext for breaking off the match altogether. To have her pride and darling removed, not only from her own sight, but from the admiring eyes of more wealthy suitors, was a blow to her ambitious views which caused her to fret herself into an illness. As a dutiful daughter, Helen had no alternative but the mournful one of letting her lover depart without her; and it was a poor consolation to them, that they agreed he should return after three years to claim her hand; an arrangement to which even Mrs Phillips was induced to consent. Helen's tears at parting were many and sincere; but she had a home, dotting parents, and a sanguine disposition; and to her, at eighteen, "three years' hence" seemed as "to-morrow." With her lover it was different. He had a delicate constitution and sensitive mind, and the despondence which often accompanies them. To him "three years' hence" had the sound of "never;" and he sighed to think that the maternal power which had stepped between him and present happiness, would be ever at hand to interpose and forbid future re-union. "Heaven bless and keep you to me, William!" prayed the attached but short-sighted girl. "Heaven bless and keep you mine!" was his more definite petition; for it was dictated by a crowd of misgivings.

And it was even as he had feared. Two of his years of exile had scarcely rolled away, when rumour brought tidings, corroborated by Helen's slackening correspondence, that she was about to become the bride of another; and as if to add a sharpness to the sting of his disappointment, he also heard that her chosen husband was a wealthy planter—then on a visit in Wales—whose home and estates were situated not far distant from the residence of the heart-broken lover, who would thus in all probability not only know her, but see her the bride of another.

After much hope, doubt, and despair, the clergyman received a confirmation of his worst fears from Helen herself. She had insisted on addressing him in her own hand, upon what she truly styled their "joint misfortune." The new alliance was in fact extremely distasteful to her, and had nothing to recommend it to one careless of wealth, save its absolute expediency to relieve her father from embarrassments created by a numerous family and an expensive wife. Mrs Phillips, despite the coming separation—which in Burton's case she so deeply deprecated—was in raptures at her daughter's brightened worldly prospects. "She has always said, William, ever since I was born," the letter sadly ended, "that I was too pretty for a poor man's wife. How I wish I were Lucy (her unmarried sister), who would, I am sure, have been cheerfully ceded to you did she possess feelings similar to mine."

These were sad sentiments for a bride of twenty, with a really worthy though grave bridegroom at her feet, and a little fortune in her jewel-box. In the contemplation of the latter, her mother forgot to observe her daughter's pale cheek, dim eyes, and mournful April smile; but these were at length reluctantly forced upon her. It was now Helen's turn to disappoint by illness her parent's gorgeous visions of a nabob son-in-law. She fell dangerously, and, for long, hopelessly sick; and while floating between life and death, so unequivocally confessed, with her wonted openness, that distaste for and dread of her marriage lay at the root of the disease, that the good-natured Croesus waived all claim on the hand of the wayward child he had no wish to render miserable. On a hint being thrown out of a youthful attachment thwarted by want of means, he generously transferred the thousand pounds allotted to transport her as his own bride across the globe, to waft her, should she survive, to the object of her affection.

So far, all seemed to have ended better than could have been expected; and with the shuddering feeling of rescue from the very brink of an abyss—with health enfeebled, and spirits shaken, Helen seized a pen to anticipate the first expressions of her early lover's disdain, by wooing him back to a heart from which he had never been wholly banished.

But how often is the atonement of one human being to another rendered abortive by a higher power! No word of reproach from William embittered the lot of Helen, because he pitied the inexperienced playmate of his childhood, and forgave her misjudging parent; but, on the other hand, no welcome letter from Helen expressing her undiminished affection cheered his lonely heart, to reward his forbearance; for, ere it could arrive, he was dead!—a victim to climate, all said, and Helen strove to think; but how much deeper and more fatal its ravages on one predisposed by grief and despondence, she strove, and strove in vain, to forget. That she was for long a sincere and penitent mourner over this blight of early happiness, may easily be believed. But to feeling hearts and gentle tempers, there is a melancholy luxury in grief like hers, ill exchanged for the harsher and more tangible sorrows of the world. As long as the roof of her infancy spread over her its friendly shade—while her proud father lived to bless, and her fond mother by turns to chide and worship her, Helen, though tears would often flow, felt not their bitterness. But one short year was marked—as years often are—by the misfortunes which come not singly. The old vicar, whose whole life a large family and small income had rendered a perpetual struggle with difficulties, escaped a jail only by its sudden termination. His widow, left

destitute by his death, was reduced to accept an asylum at the homely fireside of the least handsome and cared-for of her daughters; and the other, a good, useful girl, became the nurse of an infirm aunt. The sons, as much caressed in youth as Helen, had all, in their several ways, proved burdens rather than supports to the family. And what remained for Helen, the beauty, but to eat the bitter bread of dependence in that most precarious and hazardous of all its shapes—that of a lady's companion! And truly did all deem that Providence had tempered the wind to the shorn lamb, when her forlorn condition, sweet manners, and hitherto fatal beauty, procured for her (through the benevolent exertions of the bishop of the diocese) the protection, rather maternal than patronising, of the proud Countess of Errington. No one could imagine or account for the sudden fancy of this usually exclusive lady, and her no less fastidious lord, for the vicar's orphan daughter, or the expense incurred to set off to its full advantage the now subdued, but only the more resistless loveliness of their new protégé. That the heart of the grateful girl should expand beneath kindness so unlooked-for, was most natural; and not less so that the vanity inseparable, in a greater or less degree, from transcendent beauty, should find congenial food in the new element of wealth, splendour, and gaiety, of which she was made to feel herself not a tolerated, but a privileged partaker. The only drawback on her enjoyment lay in the undisguised but not very flattering admiration of the young Lord Dormor, the only son of her patroness. This young man was what in boudoir parlance, and under the veil of a foreign language, is styled a *mauvais sujet*—in plain English, a scamp! whom none, perhaps, except an aristocratic father, and wilfully-blind mother, could have hoped to reclaim within the domestic pale. But they clung to the hope, that their son might be rescued by the fascinations, daily and hourly exercised under the paternal roof, of a girl too obscurely born perhaps for his chosen wife, yet whose beauty would atone for and cover the deficiencies in her birth.

But was Lord Dormor's homage a whit the worthier, or even purer, for having the sanction of the parental roof shed over it, or the hallowing influence of one unassuming of guile, and incapable of coquetry! No; for while the parents were busy schooling their pride, and anticipating fond hopes from their well-meant designs, all was in an instant lost. A deliberate insult, to which no sense of gratitude or destitution could afford a second opportunity, drove the indignant orphan from the presence of one whom she, too, had begun to dream of reforming.

The world could not be expected to care much for the calamities to which Helen had been and was now exposed; but the Welsh blood of relations, too distant to trouble themselves in ordinary circumstances, was "up" at an affront to the ancient name they bore. A warm-hearted cousin—an old squire living in the wildest part of the principality, who had courted Helen's mother when almost as pretty as herself—opened his house to her ill-used child; the hope that, in return for protection and a home, she would be to him and his equally plain "old woman" as a daughter. And so she truly became, in kindness, in duty, and in gratitude, glad to cling to honest hearts, and to experience genuine good-will; though none but herself ever knew how unfit a year's residence amid high society, and refinement of mind and manners, had rendered her for mingling with those to whom polish was unknown. It was sometimes hard to tolerate, even as a kindly sheltered guest, the coldness, monotony, and coarseness of a life the opposite of that in which she had so lately luxuriated. Among her present entertainers, society meant noise and drinking; books were unknown; rude jests and scanty gossip replaced the graceful intercourse of the civilised world she had left. Escape from such uncongenial company, without any sacrifice of her grateful feelings towards her generous protectors, was, however, soon opened to her. They also had a son, and she was called upon to act for that not very promising young gentleman a part she had failed in towards his more courtly predecessor—that of a redeeming angel. Helen knew that if deprived of her present protectors, she would sink at once into friendlessness and penury. Their disinterested wish to benefit her by the alliance, keenly awakened her feelings of gratitude to them, if it did not create an affection for her new lover. That he was their son, sufficed to cover, in the girl's eyes, a multitude of deficiencies; and in the fond hope of finding compensation for them in a fixed and tranquil home, and the care of soothing the decline of the kindly old people, by whom it was so liberally opened to her, the still beautiful, though faded Helen, became the wife of a weak young man, who, if there was little good in him, had, under parental control, hitherto exhibited no harm. But danger always lurks under the quiescence of a fool; and long before the gray heads of his almost childish parents were sorrowfully laid in the dust, vices gained ground, and dispositions manifested themselves in their successor, fatal to all his partner's slender hopes of happiness. Accustomed from childhood to be governed, the only person he was determined not to be led by was the wife who would have guided him aright; while the luxury of becoming, rather late in life, his own master, fostered a propensity, common to weak untutored minds, of tyrannising over those who had no means of retaliation. Amid low-lived

dissipation and wasteful expenditure, the husband was parsimonious to Helen and her children, to a degree which left them often almost destitute of necessities. Thus were the best years of the lovely and admired Helen ignobly and painfully spent.

She reaped, however, from misfortune the inestimable blessing of religion; and under its hallowed influence, performed faithfully and conscientiously a wife and mother's duty. To the former she had well nigh fallen a sacrifice, for, in nursing her husband through the small-pox, of which he died, she nearly lost her life, and entirely her once boasted beauty. With it, however, seemed to vanish the spell so long fatal to her happiness. Endeared by her conduct under her severe trials to a neighbouring clergyman who had first taught her to bear them, she at last became his valued wife; and ending her wedded life where it ought to have begun, in a humble parsonage, found contentment in the absence of wealth and happiness wholly independent of beauty.

#### MRS JENKINSON IN SEARCH OF A MAID-SERVANT.

I AM a quiet elderly married man, of moderate income, and with no children, residing in a small and unpretending house in a second or third-rate part of the city, from which the present communication is dated. My wife and I find it convenient to keep only one servant; but it is not inconsistent either with our means or our inclination to give this domestic good wages; and as our style of living is rather retired, and our wishes are to make all who are connected with us as happy as possible, I believe there is no particular hardship in the situation. Notwithstanding this, it is remarkable how difficult my wife has found it to obtain a servant qualified to give her even a moderate degree of satisfaction. At least such has been the case since ever we parted with one of remarkably excellent character and good qualifications, who was married out of our house, after serving us faithfully for the first five years of our wedded life. I shall not stop here to dilate on the general fact, but at once proceed to draw a few particulars from a journal which Mrs Jenkinson has kept for the purpose of chronicling all her experiences in this way.

As soon as a lady makes it known that she is in want of a servant, scores crowd in; many of them evidently without character or capacity, though, probably enough, desirous of doing well if they could. To many of these, a lady feels it painful to give a denial, but that prudence and necessity make it indispensable. Of these, few notices have been entered, after experience began to make them known at sight. It is of the more promising individuals only that I shall take notice, to show how nearly the choice is, like that of old Hobson the horse letter—no choice at all.

We generally go to the country for a few months in summer; and as friends often come to see us there, and require some attendance, we hire a little girl during that period. It is clear, therefore, we do not expect too much of our principal hand. The first of the latter kind whom I think it worth while to particularise, came to us when we were in the country. Betty—what, I do not know, for servants seldom have surnames—appeared extremely respectable when she applied for the situation; but she soon belied all our first impressions, proving to be slow and inept at her work, a glutton, and a sloven. Tongues, hams, and other things not easily procured in the country, disappeared in a wonderful way; and when the mystery was referred to her, was by her again referred to the dog, until her assigning this cause for the vanishment of a small salmon, which we had wished to keep for some friends, satisfied us that she was, in one respect at least, incorrigible. Her appearance at the same time became so untidy, that we were quite aghast at her being seen as our servant by strangers. With regard to duty, she had but one principle—to get over it with as little cost of exertion as possible. To avoid, for instance, the trouble of kindling her fire in the morning, she kept it blazing throughout the night, to the great danger of the house. Upon one occasion, finding it troublesome to break a large piece of coal, she put it on entire, though at least a hundredweight. It is true she excused herself by saying she had only put one end of the mass into the fire; but the whole, of course, ignited; and had it not alarmed us by crackling, it would speedily have fallen upon the wooden floor, and very probably alarmed us in a different manner. Finding that she was corrupting her junior assistant, we found it necessary to part with Betty, although not without some compunction towards her, as we were sensible that her faults were very much the result of the circumstances in which she had been reared. She was, we found, a member of a family of which the parents were worthless, and, consequently, wretched in the extreme, from whom she had learned nothing but what was bad. It was not in our power to set about the correction of a long course of mis-education, in the hope of making Betty a tolerable servant; but we could not but regret that there is not some established means of a public nature for redressing such evils.

Alarmed a little by this case, we thought of adopting the plan of hiring by the month, instead of the half-year, which I allow was an improvement. On casting my eye over some pages of Mrs Jenkinson's diary, in which the characters of a number of appli-



counts are given, I find such entries as, "Smart, tidy, clever servant," generally followed by some such addition as, "Stays her messages," "stays out all night," or "was dismissed from her place for letting in sweet-hearts." "A very good active oldish servant" has, for sequel, "Extremely impudent—not to be spoken to." To a reasonable mistress, it might seem that a good and active servant is entitled to expect to be left considerably to herself; but it generally happens that those who think themselves most perfect, are anything but so; and consequently their determination "not to be spoken to," is a determination to be useless for six months, if such is the period of their engagement. But to enlarge a little:—

"Susan.—A respectable-looking girl; right age and size, and respectable references. Character.—A tolerable plain cook and housemaid, *when she chooses to work*; but so addicted to dress, and with so many followers, male and female, that the house can hardly be said to belong to the family so much as to her. Will suffer no reproach or direction generally, and very apt to slap the door in her mistress's face, should she by accident wish to enter the kitchen when company is there. Went answer."

"Catherine.—A nice-looking girl; respectful in her manners, and has been in good families. Character.—Only long enough in any family to show that she ought never to have been in it. Wherever she is, ribbons and laces sure to vanish. At one place, a gown-piece spoiled by having a couple of yards cut from it. Her chief reference discovered to be her aunt. Did not return."

"Nancy.—Seems to understand her business. Character.—Turned away because, having got her a little needlework to occupy her time, which would otherwise have been half unoccupied, she did the work so badly, that it required to be all undone, though constantly working neatly enough for herself. Having heard her tell a friend of the *impertinence* that had been attempted, of setting her to sew after her work, and how she had put an end to it—her mistress immediately dismissed her. Not suit."

"Kitty.—An Irish girl, but willing to attend church with her master and mistress, if desired. Character.—A tolerable cook, very submissive and kindly in her disposition, and will work to any extent for fun, if only kindly spoken to. Cannot judge of her dressing, as she has never had many clothes. Honest so far as known; and sober. Tried her. Result.—A tolerable cook, as most of the Irish are. Sober, because she can drink a good deal without injury. Very obedient. Dresses when desired, but would rather not; and never without being desired. Seems to wish to save her money, either to return to Ireland, or to buy flashy apparel; going like a sweep in the meantime. At the end of the first month, asked out to see a brother, who had just come from Ireland, and was allowed to go. Did not return all night; and found she had been to a ball. Set about her work, however, with much alacrity, and every appearance of contrition; but having gone out, on returning and entering the drawing-room, found her asleep on the sofa, with her naked feet on the cover, and incredibly dirty. Found she was not the kind of servant I want, and allowed her to return home."

"Mary.—Gave respectable references. Saw only her late master, a man of business; but he seemed, on the whole, to think well of her. Tried her. Result.—No cook, no housemaid; as the English boy said, no nothing; and what is worse, incapable of being taught. Never spoke back, but at the same time never did as desired; and, if she could, would seize the moment to do the reverse of what she was desired. In this way spoiled dishes innumerable; and one day all but scalded her mistress in the most dreadful manner. Went to the lady whose husband had recommended her, and she seemed surprised at hearing anybody had taken her. Found she was acting now precisely as she had always done, and that she had all but put her (that is, her last mistress) out of her mind; for she had unfortunately engaged her for six months, and, during five of them, she had been so exasperated and altered in her temper by this woman, that she had often to ask her husband whether she was not becoming deranged. Mem.—Never to take a servant's character from a man again. They know nothing of the matter; and are generally such fools, with their humanity and so forth, that what they do know, they will not tell."

"Ann.—Well recommended by an aged lady, her former mistress, who says she is giving up housekeeping. On trial, turns out a tolerable cook, good washer, and cleans up the house in a first-rate style. Thought we had at last got what was wanted, and resolved on taking care to keep Ann, if possible, even at a small rise of wages. In time, found that all was not gold that glitters. First fault—a bottle of whisky found in Ann's bed; excuse—it had been purchased to alleviate a bad toothache. Second fault—keeps up small sums with which she is sent to buy articles at shops, and find that she has run us up a bill at the baker's and green-grocer's. Ann is dismissed, and gets a situation where there is a housekeeper who will look sharply after her."

Having thus experienced the deceitfulness of a character for cleanliness and a taste for hard work, we felt inclined to abate a little in these respects, and accept moral qualifications instead. While in this frame of mind, Mrs Jenkinson hired a young woman highly

recommended by a letter from her former mistress, a lady in the country, whom it was impossible to see personally. Name, Nancy. Nancy was full of gratitude for the situation; she was glad to think that a place so truly quiet and comfortable had opened to her; delighted in quiet above all things, and would take care to secure our favour. So far well as to promises; new as to performance.

For a few days the house continued to preserve its usual appearance; and if not everything that could be wished, she seemed well-meaning and respectful. But it was speedily perceived that she was either exceedingly wanting in activity, or that, when left to herself, she did not work. It was at last discovered, that instead of getting on with her work in the mornings, she had a habit of reading, and even of writing; and one day her mistress found her in the midst of confusion and filth unutterable, reading and cleaning her candlesticks at the same time; the floor, in the meantime, flooded with water from a neglected tub, and the snuffer-trays floating in it! As this book was a religious one, it was felt delicate to reprove her, farther than by quoting some texts as to "eye-service," &c. On calling at some of the places in which she had formerly served, it was discovered, that though they had declined "enlarging on the subject" (as they termed it), they had observed her habits of maudlin reading and writing, and that these interfered with her duties. She was warned that such practices must cease, or at all events the business of the house must be done. All in vain! She was a thorough dandle, and seemed not to have an idea of what her real duties were, nor that filth and confusion could at all be disagreeable. Nancy accordingly soon left us.

Our next servant, as appears from the notes before me, was altogether a different character.

"Elizabeth.—A Highland woman; a clean, steady-looking person, and, as she says, about thirty, though she looks older; has excellent characters from Ireland; and refers to respectable persons here, and these all give her a character for cleanliness and energy. Engaged her, and a woman to assist her to put the house again to rights." After a month, "Active, to be sure, but so ignorant, afraid she will some morning scour the pictures! Has attacked the sideboard and piano already, in spite of all remonstrances, though both French varnished; put the plated candlesticks in a tub of hot water, in order to clean them thoroughly, and rubbed the silver dessert-knives with yellow sand. Said she was thirty, but is at least fifty; and with a hundred absurd habits for every year. Smokes! Can neither read nor write; and to conceal her ignorance, sets off with letters, without being able to comprehend instructions; and so puts letters to our nearest friends into the post-office, and hands them letters intended for England and Ireland, or the East Indies, as the case may be. Turns friends from the door, because a friend being already with us, we are considered as engaged; and admits beggars into the passage and apartments, because they say they want to see us! Insists upon giving what she thinks proper at the door; and that if the poor are not fed, they are entitled to steal. Thinks everything left on the floor is thrown down as useless, and appropriates it accordingly; and defends herself by saying she thinks the articles of no use to me or any lady! A bag like a pillow-case filled with such matters, before being discovered; including ribbons, laces, furs, pieces of velvet, as she said, for cuffs, and yards and couples of yards of cotton cloth! Cannot count the silver things, and therefore wont be answerable for them; but intrusted, many a day, with much more silver than we have. Says a silver-spoon missing after a small party must have been thrown out with the ashes, or taken by some of our own friends! Says I never had a servant like her! Has no doubt we should live and die together, could we only put up long enough to be acquainted, as nobody ever liked her at first, but everybody at last. Likes me to scold her, for it shows I take an interest in her, and sings immediately after. On further experience, found her picking propensities so odious—things, as it appeared, being taken to the house of a cousin in the neighbourhood—that it was necessary to dismiss her."

The next, I see from Mrs Jenkinson's notes, was a girl named Peggy, who answered tolerably well, but had such an insatiable curiosity for knowing all that was said in the parlour, that she was frequently found listening at the door, and was therefore sent away. The next on the list was what is usually called a "terrible breaker"—starred a three-guinea dressing-glass, smashed a wine-decanter, and one day let fall a whole tray of tea things as she was passing through the lobby. To do this girl justice, her excuses for these and similar disasters, or, more correctly speaking, her inventions, got up on the spur of the moment, were exceedingly ingenious; the only shabby thing was her, somehow or other, always throwing a certain degree of blame on "the cat"—as inoffensive a member of the feline species as ever purred on a hearth-rug. She, also, would not answer.

Of the accomplishments of Jessy, who followed next in succession, I shall leave Mrs Jenkinson to speak in her own words.

"Jessy.—Well recommended. After a month's trial, found her to be a very indifferent plain cook; but anything relating to roasting and boiling she will listen to, and learn; nothing else. 'Can you make a curry?' I asked her.

'No.'

'Would you wish to learn?'

'No; I never troubled myself w<sup>th</sup> those things; I never intend it.'

In short, she knows nothing of made dishes, sauces, &c.; puddings, plain or not, seem equally beneath her notice. She is even astonished there should be any method of cooking a potato, beyond putting it in water and boiling it; and consequently there would never have been a tolerable potato at table, had she not been repeatedly shown the effects of her method—which were uniformly bad—and of mine. She has no idea of economy, or even of common sense, in the preparing of food. Before I thought of noticing her, she threw away all beef bones, however valuable; though, by breaking them up, it is well-known to every rational house-keeper they yield a strong and delicious soup; thought boiling the heads of fish, or the giblets of fowls, ridiculous, though these also form the foundations of very valuable dishes; thought lambs' fry, &c., nonsensical, and ox tails an abomination. Being accustomed to only vegetable broths, which sour after the second day, she threw away costly soups as 'mouldy,' though they had only thrown up the fat. In short, a very good and honest, but a very ignorant girl. Considered it ruinous to keep her, and she was dismissed."

It would only tire the patience of your readers were I to detail all our subsequent attempts. Among about a dozen who followed, two or three were really not bad servants, but they soon left us to be married; and the others were unendurable for more than three or six months. To increase our bad luck, a young girl whom we had got from the country, and who was recommended by her simplicity and willingness to learn, contrived within a fortnight to destroy the drawing-room carpet and two hearth-rugs, by letting fall shovelful of hot coal; and dreading greater misfortunes, at the expiration of her term we were thankful when she left us.

Mrs Jenkinson might now be said to be at her wit's end; and one day, worn out with vexations of one kind and another, she actually burst into tears, and declared she would give up housekeeping altogether—wished I would go and take lodgings, and sell off the furniture. Calming this torrent of nervousness with all the philosophy I was master of, I showed her that we had by no means exhausted the catalogue of characters; that amidst so many blanks, there must surely be some prizes; and that by keeping on a little longer, we might be so fortunate as really get a servant to our mind. Hope by these pleasing imaginations being once more inspired, a strict search was instituted, and good wages promised, to whoever should suit us. Jenny, the third or fourth applicant, seemed quite the thing we wished—tidy, active, good cook, did not stay her errands, careful as to fire, no relations within a hundred miles, sober and well behaved. And so Jenny was hired, but, as usual, only for a month certain.

Jenny commenced as we hoped she would continue, and for several weeks there was nothing but satisfaction on all sides. "Now," observed Mrs Jenkinson, "I think we have at length drawn a prize." "I told you so," said I encouragingly; "nothing like a little patience." Here it is necessary to explain a fact connected with our dwelling. It was a third floor, with two beneath, each inhabited by a distinct family, and possessed all the usual accommodations of such houses within itself. Of one thing we had always been very careful, the water cistern. Knowing the calamities which might ensue from inattention on this score, we had enjoined the most extreme care on every successive servant, and by good luck had hitherto escaped any serious misfortune. Now came what may be termed a visitation of the water-fiend. Jenny, be it known, with all her excellences, had an exceedingly bad memory, aggravated by a degree of self-conceit which rendered her impervious to admonition. One night—one awful night—the door-bell was rung with a peal which roused us in an instant from our slumbers. It was the watchman. The floors beneath were both flooded. Water poured from the ceilings. Drawing-rooms were dripping like caverns. A tailor and his wife, who lived in the area, were, it was declared, half drowned in bed. Kind reader, let us drop the curtain over that terrible night. Jenny had left the crane of the cistern unturned, and the water had come on during the night. Two weeks afterwards, I paid to the various parties £39, 17s. 3d., value as per appraisal, for the injuries which their respective dwellings had sustained. Jenny, of course, found a new situation.

Here, in the meantime, end our experiences of maid-servants. I am of course but a bad judge of the domestic character of my own family; but yet I think, that if there were anything in it to make our situation an ineligible one to servants, I should have some faint idea of it; and indeed the idea that there is any such peculiarity about us, is inconsistent with the fact of our having had a good servant who remained contentedly with us for several years. I am therefore forced to come to the conclusion, that there is something sadly wanting in the circumstances under which females of humble rank are prepared to become servants. Their training in household duties seems generally defective, and they are sent forth in a state of great ignorance on all other subjects, and with moral principles far from matured. Even economy is sadly deficient in general, notwithstanding the limited circumstances in which they have for the most



part been reared. Unquestionably, the higher classes of society suffer much from these causes, although the evil is so dispersed, and in many instances so little seen, that no great stir is made about it. I would ask if it is to be submitted to as an irremediable evil, or if there might not be some improvements effected in the education of the humbler classes, which would lessen it.

Edinburgh.

T. J.

[We are thoroughly convinced that the evil complained of by Mr Jenkinson, like many others, might be diminished by an improved system of education; but, apparently, an improved system of education is not a blessing to be immediately realised; and our fellow-countrymen and countrywomen must, if they do not will the one thing, submit to the other.]

#### "THE COLONISATION CIRCULAR."

WITHIN the last two or three years we have said little or nothing respecting emigration, the subject, as we supposed, being in a great measure exhausted by the numerous papers previously offered to our readers, and there being, on the whole, little new worth adding to the common stock of information. Nor, indeed, was our humble aid required. The general distresses of the country, independently of other causes, had created a wide-spread desire to emigrate, and for some time the stream of emigration from the different outports has been pouring with a steady and daily increasing force.

Our reason for at present reverting to this topic, is to call attention to what must be considered a curiosity in literature—the first of a series of pamphlets issued by Her Majesty's Colonial and Emigration Commissioners, entitled *The Colonisation Circular*, and designed to meet the increasing demand for information on questions affecting emigration to the colonies. By means of this channel, it is observed, "the commissioners will be enabled to submit to the public, with but little delay, all the authentic information which is received from the different colonies respecting the amount of land which may be ready for settlement, the opening out of new districts, the extent of previous sales, the demand for labour, and the rates of wages, with the prices of provisions, dwellings," &c. The *Circular*, which is to appear only at occasional intervals, is in the form of a small quarto, sixteen pages. Charles Knight and Co., 22 Ludgate Street, London, are the publishers.\* The voluntary composition and issuing of such an official document must certainly be considered a remarkable sign of the times; and did we not remember the admirable little digests of Mr Chadwick, which this resembles, we should describe it as the most striking concession yet made to the principle, that public functionaries hold office for the public benefit. Thankful, at any rate, to Mr Walcott, secretary to the board, for the neat manner in which he proposes to carry out the praiseworthy objects of the commissioners, we trust the *Circular* will prove extensively useful, and in future be looked for and consulted as a trustworthy friend by all classes of emigrants. A few extracts, while showing the general nature of the work, will not be without use in other respects.

**Disposal of Lands:—Canada.**—By an act of the local legislature passed in September 1841, the waste lands of the crown are to be sold at a price, to be from time to time fixed by the governor in council. The prices fixed for the present are as follows:—For Canada, West, formerly known as Upper Canada, 8s. currency (about 6s. 7d. sterling) per acre; for Canada, East (Lower Canada), in the country of Ottawa, and south of the river St Lawrence, to the west of the Kennebec road, 6s. currency (about 4s. 11d. sterling); and elsewhere in that division of the province, 4s. currency (about 3s. 3d. sterling) per acre.

These prices do not apply to lands resumed by government for non-performance of the conditions of settlement on which they were granted under a former system now abolished, nor to lands called Indian Reserves, and Clergy Reserves, which three classes are, as well as town and village lots, subject to special valuation.

The size of the lots of country lands is usually 200 acres; but they are sold as frequently by half as whole lots.

The following are the conditions of sale at present in force, as published by the local government in its official gazette:—

- 1st, The lots are to be taken at the contents in acres marked in the public documents, without guarantee as to the actual quantity contained in them.
- 2d, No payment of purchase-money will be received by instalments, but the whole purchase-money, either in money or land scrip,† must be paid at the time of sale.
- 3d, On the payment of the purchase-money, the purchaser will receive a receipt, which will entitle him to enter on the land which he has purchased, and arrangements will be made for issuing to him the patent without delay.

\* We hope the publishers will have copies for sale in every considerable town in the United Kingdom. Unless this be done, the work must be considered out of the reach of nine-tenths of the parties for whose benefit it is professedly printed.

† This is scrip issued by the local government in satisfaction of certain old militia claims which have been recently adjusted by this means.

The receipt thus given not only authorises the purchaser to take immediate possession, but enables him, under the provisions of the land act, to maintain legal proceedings against any wrongful possessor or trespasser, as effectually as if the patent deed had issued on the day the receipt is dated.

For the convenience of the public generally, district agents are appointed under the provincial land act in each municipal district, with full power to sell to the first applicant any of the advertised lands which by the return open to public inspection may be vacant within his district.

**New Brunswick.**—The mode of sale in this province is by auction. The upset price is generally about 2s. 8d. sterling (3s. currency), but varies according to situation, &c. The average price actually fetched by ordinary country lands has been from 4s. 6d. to 9s. sterling (5s. to 10s. currency) per acre, according to situation, &c. Fifty acres is the smallest quantity usually sold.

**Nova Scotia.**—The public lands are here also sold by auction, at an upset price which is at present 2s. 6d. sterling (about 3s. currency) per acre. The smallest quantity of country land usually sold is 100 acres.

**Prince Edward's Island.**—In this colony the crown has but little land at its disposal, namely, about 8400 acres. Sale by auction prevails, and the average price realised for ordinary country lands has been from 10s. to 14s. currency per acre.

**Newfoundland.**—There exists no official return of the surveyed and accessible land at the disposal of the crown in this colony. The area has been estimated at about 2,300,000 of acres, of which about 23,000 have been appropriated. In 1841, the number of acres sold was 311, at an average price of 2s. per acre. Although the agriculture of the province is progressively increasing, there are yet comparatively few persons exclusively employed in it, the population being nearly all engaged in the fisheries.

**Australian Colonies.**—The following are the regulations now in force under the provisions of the Australian land act, 5 and 6 Vict. c. 36, for the disposal of the waste lands in the colonies of New South Wales (including the Sydney and Port Phillip districts, and any other districts that may hereafter be opened), Van Diemen's Land, South Australia, Western Australia, New Zealand:—

1. All lands will be disposed of by sale alone, and must have once at least been exposed to public auction.
2. The lowest upset price will be not less than L.1 per acre; but the government will have power to raise the same by proclamation, though not again to reduce it.
3. The lands will be distinguished into three different classes, namely, town lots, suburban lots, and country lots.
4. Upon town and suburban lots, as well as upon a proportion not exceeding one-tenth of the whole of the country lots offered for sale at any auction, the governor will have the power of naming a higher than the general or lowest upset price; the country lots on which such power is exercised to be designated "special country lots."
5. Town and suburban lots will in no case be disposed of except by public auction; but country lots which have already been put up to public auction, and not sold, may be disposed of afterwards by private contract at the upset price.
6. No lands will be sold by private contract except for ready money. When sold by public auction, one-tenth at least of the whole purchase-money must be paid down, and the remainder within one calendar month, or the deposit will be forfeited.
7. Lands will be put up for sale in lots not exceeding one square mile in extent.
8. As an exception to the general regulations, and subject to certain restrictions laid down in the Australian land act, the governor will have it in his discretion to dispose, by private contract, at a price not less than the lowest upset price for the district, of blocks comprising 20,000 acres or more.
9. Persons will be at liberty to make payments for colonial lands in this country, for which payment or deposit they will receive an order for credit to the same amount in any purchase of land they may effect in the colony, and will have the privilege of naming a proportionate number of emigrants for a free passage, as explained in the next article.
10. For every sum of L.100, deposited as above, the depositor will be entitled, for six months from the date of payment, to name a number of properly qualified emigrants, equal to four adults, for a free passage. Two children between one and fourteen are to be reckoned as equal to one adult. The emigrants are required to be chosen from the class of mechanics and handicraftsmen, agricultural labourers, or domestic servants, and must be going out with the intention to work for wages. They are to be subject to the approval of the commissioners, and must, in all respects, fall within their general regulations on the selection of labourers. The purchaser and his family cannot receive a free passage under this privilege.

**Falkland Islands** (near Cape Horn).—The lands in this colony are now open for sale. The mode of sale is the same as that adopted in the Australian colonies, under the above-mentioned act of Parliament. The upset price of country lands is, for the present, 8s. per acre. Town lots of half an acre each, and suburban

lots of fifty acres each, will be put up at L.50. Deposits of purchase money may be made in this country in the mode prescribed for the Australian colonies, but the depositors will be entitled to nominate for a free passage six, instead of four, adult labourers for every L.100 deposited.

Here follow eight pages in a tabular form, showing rates of wages, prices of provisions, &c., all which we consider of little practical value, from the variable nature of the supplies. For example, we find in Western Australia that salt is 8d. per pound; but a vessel arriving with a supply of that article, would probably lower it to 2d. per pound. Thus, also, the arrival of a ship-load of female emigrants would probably lower the rate of wages of domestic servants from L.25 to L.12. Some of the information respecting the classes of emigrant servants required in the colonies is likewise unsatisfactory; and in the answers to two queries, there is a flat contradiction. The following questions are asked of the colonial government officers in reference to South Australia.

"State the description of labour which is in request in the colony. *Answer.*—There is a great demand for agricultural labourers, and particularly shepherds; both to be young married couples.

State any particulars relative to immigration, and the demand for labour, which you may think may be useful. *Answer.*—At the end of June, 181 men were in the employment of the government for want of work elsewhere, being 97 less than at the end of the previous quarter. There is work in the colony, but settlers have not the means for employing men at the present time; and from the general depressed state of the colony in all branches where persons procure work, great numbers have been thrown out of employment. This does not extend to the working-classes alone; many respectable persons are now in the greatest distress."

How there can be a demand for agricultural labourers and shepherds at the same time that government is employing 181 men for want of work elsewhere, and that there is a universal depression and poverty, is to us unaccountable. When one finds such inconsistencies in the information supplied by government officials on the spot, we may well excuse the random and blundering intelligence of private correspondents.

We close with the following table, showing the number of emigrants who have embarked from the several ports of the United Kingdom during the year 1842:—

	England	Scotland	Ireland	Total.
To America:—				
United States, . . .	33,459	4,314	6,199	63,852
Texas, . . .	38	...	...	38
Central America, . . .	195	...	...	195
Buenos Ayres, . . .	130	...	...	130
North American Colonies:—				
Canada, . . .	11,257	5,353	24,163	41,773
New Brunswick, . . .	552	90	8,045	8,687
Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, . . .	467	1,625	241	2,333
Newfoundland, . . .	135	30	325	490
Prince Edward's Island, . . .	624	...	633	1,257
West Indies:—				
Jamaica, . . .	203	41	...	244
British Guiana, . . .	64	50	...	114
Trinidad, . . .	37	34	...	71
Other West India Islands, . . .	228	91	7	326
Falkland Islands, . . .	2	...	...	2
Western Africa, . . .	44	...	...	44
Cape of Good Hope, . . .	553	4	...	557
Mauritius, . . .	26	...	...	26
Australian Colonies:—				
Sydney, . . .	1,022	78	310	1,410
Port Phillip, . . .	709	104	...	813
Van Diemen's Land, . . .	1,700	31	627	2,428
South Australia, . . .	119	26	...	145
Western Australia, . . .	563	...	...	563
New Zealand, . . .	2,345	719	...	3,064
Total Number of Emigrants, . . .	74,683	13,106	40,533	128,322

It is allowed that of those who emigrated to the United States, nearly 10,000 returned, giving as a reason the impossibility of finding employment—the general stagnation of business—and the total want of confidence in all ordinary transactions. Those who returned from Canada did not exceed 50 or 60 persons. Making every reasonable deduction for returns, it appears that at least 127,200 individuals permanently left the shores of the United Kingdom in 1842; which gives a ratio of 348 daily, or about a third of the increment of population. Enormous as is this stream of emigration, it is annually on the increase. In 1839, the number was only 62,207; in 1840, it was 90,743; and in 1841, it rose to 118,592.

#### LOCUSTS.

In the "Life of a Travelling Physician," just published, the author, in describing his visit to a part of Russia, near Odessa, gives the following remarkable account of the devastations of locusts in that part of the world:—

"It is almost impossible to hope for credence from those who have not been eye-witnesses of the sight which the garden presented. The whole of the surface was covered, ankle deep, with these insects, clambering pell-mell over each other, but all proceeding in the same direction. They did not allow us to tread upon them, but on our approach, rose on wing with a whizzing noise,



and, flying forwards over the heads of the main body, settled down again in the vanguard of the body of their army. This is the manner in which they alight from the wing: the first rank pitches upon the ground, and the others do not follow the train, but precede it, alighting one before the other, so that the rearguard in flight is the vanguard when they are upon the field.

The sight of them upon the trees was most curious. The branches were bent to the ground by the incumbent weight, and the Italian poplars resembled weeping willows, from their lighter branches being reversed by the weight of the locusts. Several trees were already completely bared, for the insect destroys much more than it consumes. It gnaws the stem of the leaf, and not the body, so that the leaf drops upon the ground almost entire, its stalk only having been eaten.

When the insects are browsing upon the trees, they are not so easily scared away by the appearance of man as when merely settled upon the ground; they hold fast to their food, and the boughs must be shaken before they will leave their hold. This was indeed a curious and amusing experiment; for it was something like magic to see a tree throw its branches up into the air, as soon as the locusts were shaken off. They avoid coming in contact with mankind in their flight. I have actually been in clouds of them, without one having come near my face. Sometimes, from accident, or from injury, or from fatigue, a solitary one will drop down exhausted, just as we see the straggling sick of an army; but when in vigour, they steer clear of human kind.

Volney has given an accurate description of these insects in his "Travels in Syria," and mentioned several facts which I myself witnessed. He observes, that they are accompanied in their flight by birds of the size of a thrush, which devour them, and make continual war against them. These birds are cherished by the peasants in Syria, and so they are by the people in this country. I have watched them for hours, but must confess I never saw them make much havoc in the ranks of the enemy. As Volney observes, the locusts are sometimes carried by the wind towards the sea, and being exhausted before they reach the opposite shore, fall dead into the deep, and are washed ashore by the tide, producing a foul infection.

When they arrive in full force in a country which is at all populous, the inhabitants drive them away by making noises with marrow-bones and cleavers, &c. They also burn straw or sedge, or whatever light fuel they may possess, to smoke them out. All these efforts go but a little way to accomplish their end; for the locusts, driven from one field, proceed to another; and wherever they appear, it may be truly said, in the language of Scripture, that "The land is before them as the garden of Eden, and behind them a desolate wilderness." It is possible to destroy great numbers by preceding them and cutting deep trenches across their path; they all walk into the trench, where they find lighted straw to receive and consume them. This is a common and most effectual way. Upon the same principle, a person in Odessa invented a kind of long iron roller, which was to be dragged with horses at full pace over their marching armies. All the means, however, resorted to at present, are more plausible than effectual, and have only destroyed the hundreds, to see the millions vanquish. It is asserted, that when they have devoured all that is green upon the earth, and are unable to procure more food, they are pushed by hunger to prey upon each other; the weak and the wounded thus feed the strong, as is the case with quadrupeds under similar pressure of want. The same cause which compels them to consume each other, has often compelled the inhabitants of Syria, in cases of famine, to consume them. They actually grind the dried bodies of the locusts, and knead them into a cake."

### THE CORNISH MINER.

[From "England in the Nineteenth Century."]

"THE employment of the miner is very liable to accident; he has not only to descend to his labour, and to ascend after it is over, every eight hours, but he has to traverse levels at a great depth below the surface before he reaches his place of work; and so deep are the mines, that it frequently costs an hour to reach the surface after his labour is done. Few have an idea of the magnitude of a Cornish mine of the more extensive kind; but some notion may be formed of the vastness of the workings, when we state that those of the Consolidated Mines alone extend 63 miles under ground, or 55,000 fathoms. The ascent and descent are by ladders, which were formerly perpendicular to the sides of the mine, and fifty feet long; but as the mines have been worked deeper, the ladders have been shortened to half that length, and placed as slopingly as possible, to ease the miner, whose weight is thus rendered more dependent upon his feet than it was before, and less upon his hands." Notwithstanding the great inconveniences of working much below ground, the Cornish miner is by no means an abject being. If his toil in the mine has not been too great, "on repairing to his cottage, he cultivates his acre or two of ground, which he obtains on lease, upon easy terms, from the healthy downs, for three lives, at a few shillings' rent. There, by degrees, he has contrived to build a small cottage, often a good part of it with his own hand, the stone costing him nothing; or it may be he has only taken land for the growth of potatoes, to cultivate which he pares and burns the ground, and rents a cottage at fifty or sixty shillings a-year, with a right of turf fuel, which he cuts and prepares himself. Many miners have tolerable gardens, and some are able to do their own carpentry work; and near the coast, others are expert fishermen. The fishermen themselves, a very sturdy and bold set of men, cultivate their own potato ground when

on shore. In the mining districts of the west, about Camborne and Redruth, the ground is literally sown with cottages. In Cornwall, the miners link together the different labouring classes; and the farmer often imbibes, from mingling with the miners and fishermen, a spirit and acuteness akin to a sense of independence, not observed in the rustic of other counties. The miner is generally possessed of personal courage in a very eminent degree. At least one-third of the crew of Captain Pellew's (Lord Exmouth's) ship, that fought the gallant action with the *Cleopatra* French frigate, the first naval action last war, were Cornish miners, who had never been at sea in a ship before; and almost all on board were fellow-countrymen of Pellew. Indeed courage is required in many situations in which the miner is placed. Thus, at Botallack mine, at the extreme west of the county, a few miles from the Land's End, and close to Cape Cornwall, a shore lashed by the full fury of the Atlantic, the workings are upon the verge of the cliff, and, descending beneath the sea, are carried out 450 feet beyond low-water mark; and in some places not eighteen feet is left between the workings and the sea. At every flux and reflux of the tide, the waves are heard breaking in thunder over head; wonderfully high as they run, and tremendously loud as they roar, from over an ocean hundreds of leagues broad; the large pieces of stone rolled backward and forward on the beach during a storm can be distinctly heard above, grating 'harsh thunder.' Several parts of the lode being rich, were followed to within a few feet of the water, when in stormy weather the noise became so tremendous, that the miners, intrepid as they are, deserted their labour once or twice, lest the sea should break in upon them. The nature of the work of the Cornish miner may be further estimated from the fact of the shafts alone of one mine being together twenty miles in depth beneath the surface, and some 1652 feet deep, or nearly five times the height of St Paul's from the cross to the ground, or 340 feet. The 'Great Adit,' cut from side to side of the county, measures more than thirty miles, including its branches; and in some parts it is 400 feet below the surface of the ground. The largest branch of this adit is five and a-half miles, and it opens into the sea above high-water mark at Restronger creek. This is tunnelling of some character, and evinces abundantly the perseverance, ingenuity, and hazardous nature of these undertakings, as well as the character of those who plan and carry them into effect.

The Botallack mine at St Just is not the only stupendous undertaking, a part of the workings of which Cornwall exhibits, or has exhibited, above ground. We have mentioned the Carclaze tin mine, worked for 400 years open to the day. Near Pensance there was an extraordinary undertaking, called the Wherry mine, of which the mouth opened in the sea; the mine was commenced 720 feet from the shore, and the miners worked 100 feet beneath. A steam engine was erected on the shore, which communicated by rods with the shaft, and so pumped up the water. The rods passed by the side of a platform or wherry, tilted upon piles. A vessel in a storm was once driven against the platform, and carried away a portion of it. The upper part of the shaft consisted of a caisson, which rose twelve feet above the ocean level, and stood in the midst of the mound of rubbish excavated from the mine, the miners descending through the sea to their labour, the water continually dropping from the roof of the mine, and the roar of the waves being distinctly perceptible below. The undertaking was adventurous beyond example, and was ultimately given up from the expense exceeding the profit. The ore raised was tin, some of which was mingled with pyrites copper, and a portion of it was of very good quality."

### FANCY FAIR AT HANWELL LUNATIC ASYLUM.

A short time back the benevolent governors, for the amusement of its inmates, gave a ball in the wards of this institution, and a few select friends were permitted to witness the eccentric capers of Dr Conolly's patients. Emboldened by the success of that experiment, the visiting justices gave another *fête* on Wednesday. A bazaar, or fancy fair, was held within one of the wards of the hospital. Its projectors had a twofold object in view. The first was to afford the public an opportunity of seeing the asylum, and to impress upon them by the works exhibited, and the general arrangements of the place, how greatly the condition of the insane may be ameliorated, and their faculties rendered useful, by kind care and judicious treatment. The second intention of the meeting was to obtain the aid of the visitors to the admirable charity for the relief of convalescent patients, known as the "Queen Adelaide Fund." Several hundred persons visited the asylum during the day. The articles exhibited for sale were the *bona fide* productions of the patients, and appeared to give great satisfaction to the company. One pet lunatic, who was allowed to remain in the wards, afforded the company much amusement. He was a fine old jovial looking man, dressed in a mixed costume, crowned with a motley cap, bedizened with various coloured ribbons. This patient has been confined in the hospital for a period of twelve years. He is very loquacious and full of fun. He tells the story of his life with evident self-complacency. His name is William Rayner. For a number of years he was the harlequin, and his wife the columbine, at Covent Garden theatre. He commenced his career in the character of Punch. After the death of his wife, he, to use his own phraseology, "took to fretting," and was brought to Hanwell.

His long residence within this establishment, and his constant association with lunatics, have not in the slightest degree affected his animal spirits. On the faintest hint, he is prepared to cut his capers o'er again, and to show what he could do in early life to amuse the "quality" on the boards of Covent Garden theatre. "Supposing," said he, addressing himself to the company who surrounded him, "this to be the green curtain. It rises. I advance to the foot-lights and make a bow. I then go so (cutting a most ludicrous caper), and then so" (attempting a most insane pirouette), at the conclusion of which he bursts out into a most immoderate fit of laughter, making the ward ring again with its merry peal. This man's sleeping apartment is a perfect *bijou*. The walls of the room are covered with coloured prints, and, like Hadfield, he appears to have a taste for stuffed birds and animals. The whole arrangements of the asylum appear to be of a superior character. Every attention is paid to the comfort and security of the patients, and, as far as prudence will justify, all coercive measures in the treatment of the lunatics are dispensed with. In order to show the success which has resulted from the system pursued at Hanwell, under the direction of Dr Conolly, we need only mention one fact which came to our knowledge yesterday, namely, that one keeper is able to superintend and take the charge of fifty patients.—*Pictorial Times*.

### DIFFIDENCE OF OUR EARLY WRITERS.

D'Israeli notices the modest diffidence of some of our early writers. They looked with alarm, he thinks, upon the halo of immortality that encircled the printing-press. The printer of England's "Halicon" was obliged to conceal the names of the contributors with slips of paper pasted over. The poems of Surrey appeared after his death. Sidney did not compose the "Arcadia" with any view to publication. Sackville's "Induction to the Mirror of Magistrates" was sent into the world without a name. The juvenile poetry of Milton dropped from his imagination like blossoms from the boughs of a tree in an unvisited garden. He gave their bloom and odour to the wind, heedless where it wafted them, and conscious that the garden was his own, and that he could bend over every flower when it pleased him—

"The summer rose is to the summer sweet,  
Though to itself it only live and die."

—*Fraser's Magazine*.

### ORGANIC MATTER IN SPRING WATERS.

At a recent meeting of the St Andrews Literary and Philosophical Society, Professor Connell gave an account of some investigations he had lately made on "The occurrence of organic matter in the purest waters from terrestrial sources." It must be well-known to those acquainted with chemistry, that when a solution of acetate of lead (sugar of lead) is added to the transparent and colourless water of springs, wells, or rivers, a more or less dense white cloud is almost invariably produced in the water. This reaction has been usually attributed to the presence of inorganic salts, such as sulphates, carbonates, and muriates; and, of course, where any of these salts are present in sufficient quantity to affect the lead salt, they will be, in part at least, the cause of the appearance. But it will usually be found that the effect is produced even after the water has been boiled, and that the precipitate is dissolved without effervescence by the addition of a little acetic acid (vinegar). Hence it is not a sulphate, a carbonate, or a phosphate; and the slight action on salts of silver shows that it is not a chloride. It therefore appeared probable that the precipitate was produced by the presence of organic matter (matter derived from the decomposition of animal or vegetable substances) contained in the water employed, and entering into combination with the oxide of lead of the acetate. This view was confirmed by decomposing a quantity of the precipitate by sulphuretted hydrogen, when the filtered liquid was found to contain organic matter apparently of an azotised nature. This matter was found to exist in the town waters of St Andrews, of Edinburgh, and of Glasgow, and in all the springs, wells, and brooks, which came under Mr Connell's observation. It has evidently been derived from the decomposition of vegetable matter contained in the soil or strata through which the water has infiltrated. It does not exist in rain water, and probably would not be found in springs at elevations above the limits of vegetation, or in the water of glaciers. It is probably nearly allied to the crenic acid of Berzelius. It seems reasonable to suppose that this matter may perform important functions in the economy of nature. From being dissolved in the pure water of springs, wells, and rivers, it is precisely in that state which fits it for being taken up by the roots and fibres of plants, and so contributing to their nourishment in proportion to its amount, and in so far as that nourishment is derived through such channels. In particular, the beneficial effects of irrigation may be more or less due to such a cause. It may perhaps even contribute in some degree to the nourishment of those animals which consume considerable quantities of such waters; and this will be the more probable if the matter be truly an azotised substance—that is, a substance containing nitrogen, one of the principal elements in the formation of all animal and vegetable structures.

From the small quantity of organic matter contained in the waters above alluded to, it cannot be considered in any way injurious to the health of the inhabitants of the above towns; it is only when in excess, such as in marsh or stagnant waters, that the results of vegetable decomposition are attended with deleterious effects.

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